

We looked at the shape of 340 000 galaxies  
to see how it evolved through cosmic time

## ~~DAWN JWST Archive: Morphology from profile fitting of over 340 000 galaxies in major JWST fields~~

### ~~Morphology evolution with redshift and galaxy type~~

Aurélien Genin<sup>1,2,3,\*</sup>, Marko Shuntov<sup>1,2,5,\*</sup>, Gabe Brammer<sup>1,2</sup>, Natalie Allen<sup>1,2</sup>, Kei Ito<sup>1,4</sup>, Georgios Magdis<sup>1,2,4</sup>, Jasleen Matharu<sup>1,2</sup>, Pascal A. Oesch<sup>1,2,5</sup>, Sune Toft<sup>1,2</sup>, and Francesco Valentino<sup>1,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Cosmic Dawn Center (DAWN), Denmark

<sup>2</sup> Niels Bohr Institute, University of Copenhagen, Jagtvej 128, 2200 Copenhagen, Denmark

<sup>3</sup> Ecole Polytechnique, Institut Polytechnique de Paris, Route de Saclay, 91120 Palaiseau, France

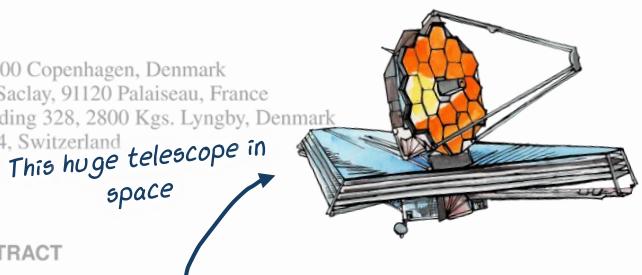
<sup>4</sup> DTU Space, Technical University of Denmark, Elektrovej, Building 328, 2800 Kgs. Lyngby, Denmark

<sup>5</sup> University of Geneva, 24 rue du Général-Dufour, 1211 Genève 4, Switzerland

Received 13 May 2025 / Accepted 28 May 2025

## SUMMARY

## ABSTRACT



Understanding how galaxies assemble their structures and evolve morphologically over cosmic time is a central goal of galaxy evolution studies. We present a new catalog of morphological measurements for more than 340 000 sources spanning the redshift range  $z \approx 0.1$ – $2.5$ , combining data from the DAWN, JWST, and Hubble Space Telescopes (HST). The catalog includes measurements from the Public Release 1 (PR1) of the COSMOS-GOODS campaign in the DAWN-JWST Archive (DJA). We performed two-dimensional surface brightness fitting for all galaxies in a dimpled flux-limited sample. Each galaxy was modeled with both a Sérsic profile and a two-component (bulge and disk) decomposition, yielding concentrations, effective radii, Sérsic indices ( $n_S$ ), axis ratios, and bulge-to-total ratio ( $B/T$ ). To demonstrate the blending application of our morphology catalogs, we combined these measurements with the star formation rate, stellar mass, and disk sizes to star formation activity, and redshift. Bulge-dominated galaxies (high  $n_S$  and  $B/T$ ) predominantly occupy the quiescent center of the field, while disks are concentrated in the outer regions. Quiescent galaxies also show significantly higher disk sizes, lower star formation activity, and redshift. All this work is an addition to a large database for astrophysicists about scientific applications.

We have confirmed some results that galaxies go extinct (scientists talk of "quenching") when they are more compact. We also showed how the center of dying galaxies tend to grow faster than their outskirts. All this work is an addition to a large database for astrophysicists about galaxies in the early Universe observed by the JWST.

**Key words.** techniques: image processing – catalogs – galaxies: evolution – galaxies: structure

## 1 WHAT'S THE POINT?

In the standard Lambda cold dark matter ( $\Lambda$ CDM) paradigm, galaxies form as gas accretes and cools within dark matter halos, which in turn shapes their sizes and morphologies (e.g., Fall & Efron 1990). By looking at the sky, we know that galaxies exist in different shapes. Over their lifetimes, galaxies undergo various physical processes that regulate or disrupt their growth, such as star formation feedback from stars and active galactic nuclei (AGNs), mergers, and gas accretion, all of which leave imprints on their structural properties. Consequently, studying galaxy morphology across cosmic time is key to understanding the physical transformations that accompany galaxy evolution, as well as the interplay between galaxies and their host dark matter halos (e.g., Conselice 2014, for a review).

Historically, galaxy morphology has been studied through a range of techniques that have evolved alongside observational capabilities. Early classifications followed the Hubble-de

Vaucouleurs visual classification scheme (Hubble 1936; de Vaucouleurs 1959). These visual schemes relied on manual inspection of photographic plates to identify structural features such as spiral arms, ellipticity, and concentration. Previous astrophysicists invented ways to measure these different shapes using numbers. The goal is to more accurately see how the shape of galaxies evolved with time. One number very often used is the Sérsic index. It's small (around 1) for spiral galaxies, and larger (4 and more) for elliptical galaxies.

A series of large surveys from both ground- and space-based observatories has enabled a detailed understanding of galaxy morphology across cosmic time. In the local Universe, the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) enabled statistical

\* Corresponding authors: aurelien.genin@polytechnique.org; marko.shuntov@ku.dk

Spiral  
galaxies

Elliptical  
galaxies

studies of galaxy structure, revealing, for instance, that the size distribution at fixed luminosity follows a log-normal form at  $z \lesssim 0.3$  (Shen et al. 2003). The Galaxy Zoo project leveraged SDSS imaging to produce visual classifications for hundreds of thousands of galaxies (Lintott et al. 2008), enabling studies of morphological diversity and its connection to environment and star formation (e.g., Schawinski et al. 2014). At intermediate redshifts, the *Hubble* Space Telescope (HST) played a transformative role through legacy programs such as GEMS (Rix et al. 2004), COSMOS (Koekemoer et al. 2007), and CANDELS (Grogin et al. 2011; Koekemoer et al. 2011), which enabled high-resolution imaging and morphological measurements out to  $z \sim 3$ . These datasets allowed for extensive morphological analysis.

**To look at galaxies and how they evolve with time, telescopes have to look very far in the Universe (remember, the further we observe, the more we go back in time).**

Many telescopes have done that, such as Hubble and now the JWST. This gives a very large set of observations, with the JWST pushing even further than Hubble!

The James Webb Space Telescope (JWST) has opened a new era in the study of galaxy morphology, enabling rest-frame optical measurements out to  $z \gtrsim 7$  with unprecedented depth and resolution. Studies based on JWST observations have revealed the evolution of galaxy morphology and size for both star-forming and quiescent galaxies out to unpreceded redshifts (e.g., Valenzuela et al. 2025; Matharu et al. 2024; Wright et al. 2024; Ito et al. 2024; Yang et al. 2024). These studies have focused on specific galaxy populations, such as massive or color-selected subsamples, or have been limited to individual fields. Astronomers have preferred regions in the sky that they observe with different telescopes. This allows to compare their measurements and better understand the Universe. The ones we used are called: EGS, GOODS, COSMOS, UDS (Ultra Deep Survey!).

In this work, we build one of the largest and most uniform morphological catalogs to date using JWST imaging, enabling consistent structural measurements across multiple fields and redshifts. We utilize publicly available mosaics from the DAWN JWST Archive (DJA, Valentino et al. 2023), which compiles deep NIRCam imaging from major extragalactic surveys, including CEERS, PRIMER (UDS and COSMOS), and GOODS. These are accompanied by matched photometric redshifts and physical parameters. To measure galaxy morphology,

we carry out two-dimensional surface brightness profile fitting using SOURCETRACTOR++ (Bertin et al. 2020; Kümmel et al. 2020), a modern, scalable tool optimized for catalog-level model fitting in large multiband datasets. We fit each galaxy with both a single-component Sérsic profile (Sérsic 1963) and a two-component Bulge+Disk (B+D) model consisting of an exponential disk ( $n_S = 1$ ) and a de Vaucouleurs bulge ( $n_S = 4$ ). This dual-model approach allows us to probe structural diversity more flexibly and to derive key parameters, such as the Sérsic index ( $n_S$ ), the effective radius, the axis ratio, and the bulge-to-total ratio ( $B/T$ ). We apply this modeling to all sources above a flux limit of  $10^{-18}$  W m $^{-2}$  Hz $^{-1}$  in the  $J$  filter, resulting in a morphological catalog spanning approximately 340 000 sources across  $0 < z < 7$ . We also include a sample of 10 000 galaxies with the ability to carry out detailed statistical studies of galaxy morphology evolution throughout cosmic time.

We set out to measure the shape of a lot more galaxies by looking at all these large and deep regions of the sky at once. This is achieved by using the point spread function (PSF) reconstruction are presented in Section 2. In Section 3, we describe our method for measuring the morphology and sizes of galaxies across such a large field. In Section 4, we present our results on the correlation between morphology and the  $UVJ$  diagram, as well as the size evolution in the Sérsic and B+D models. We summarize our results in Section 5. We adopt a Planck Collaboration VI (2020)  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology with  $H_0 = 67.4$  km s $^{-1}$  Mpc $^{-1}$ ,  $\Omega_{m,0} = 0.315$ . All magnitudes are expressed in the AB system (Oke 1974).

## WHAT DATA DID WE USE?

This work uses NIRCam images (Rieke et al. 2005) from public surveys of the JWST proposed as part of the DAWN JWST survey (Valentino et al. 2023). The survey is a public repository containing reduced images, photometric catalogs, and spectra. The data from public JWST data, and is described in more detail in Valentino et al. (2023). In this work, we carry out morphological measurements in several major extragalactic surveys, covering a total area of  $\sim 500$  arcmin $^2$ . We focus on the following fields:

1. EGS from CEERS (DD-ERS 1345 Finkelstein et al. 2023);
2. GOODS from JADES (GTO 1180, 1181, 1210, 1287 Eisenstein et al. 2023);
3. UDS from PRIMER UDS (GO 1837 Donnan et al. 2024);
4. COSMOS from PRIMER COSMOS (GO 1837 Donnan et al. 2024).

Table 1 presents the area and photometric bands used in these fields and their  $5\sigma$  depths (computed from empty apertures by Weibel et al. 2024).

### 2.1. Images

The images used in this work are drawn from the DJA. These images are processed by the Cosmic DAWN Center (where I was doing my internship that led me to do this work) to be ready to be used by scientists.

The DJA provides reduced and calibrated images in photometric units (AB mag), which we used to run SOURCETRACTOR++, alongside the gaudi module that provide the inverse-variance distribution. For source detection, we used the inverse-variance weighted stack of the long-wavelength filters (specified with `ir` in place of the filter in the image name). We did not

**Table 1.** Summary of the fields covered in this work.

Field	Area (arcmin <sup>2</sup> )	Depth (mag)	Bands
EGS	82.0	29.16	F115W, F150W, F182M, F200W, F210M, F277W, F356W, F410M, F444W
GOODS	67.3	29.93	F090W, F115W, F150W, F200W, F277W, F356W, F444W
PRIMER- UDS	224.4	28.51	F090W, F115W, F150W, F200W, F277W, F356W, F444W
PRIMER- COSMOS	127.1	28.62	F090W, F115W, F150W, F200W, F277W, F356W, F444W

**Notes.** All images are from the DJA and were processed prior to this work. The survey areas and  $5\sigma$  depths computed from empty apertures correspond to the F277W band and were calculated by Weibel et al. (2024).

apply any PSF convolution, since SOURCEXTRACTOR++ convolves the source models with the corresponding filter PSF (see Sect. 2.3).

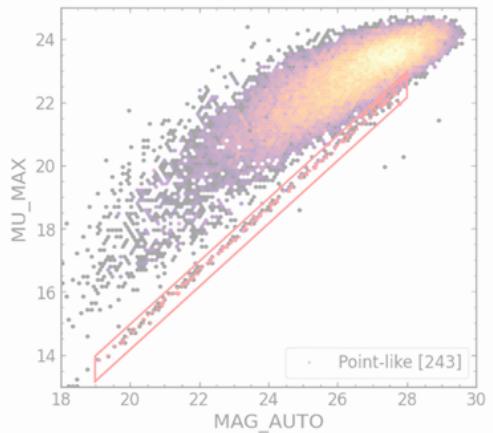
## 2.2. Catalogs

The DJA also provides photometric and photo-z catalogs produced with SExtractor (Bertin & Arnouts 1996) and EAZY (Eisenhardt et al. 2011). We also used measurements done by astrophysicists at DAWN of other properties of these galaxies: their distance, their mass, their color, their brightness... In this work, we used the EAZY output to investigate morphology evolution as a function of redshift and galaxy type (Sect. 4).

## 2.3. Point spread function reconstruction

Accurate model fitting requires precise characterization of the instrument’s PSF. The PSF results from light diffraction at the aperture of the telescope and defines the resolution limit of JWST. We empirically modeled the PSF from the final mosaics using PSFEx (Ardila 2017), which adds a model for the PSF by fitting it to input images. This model is included in an input catalog. Recent work by Beaman et al. (2024) shows that pictures that are somewhat blurry.

To select point sources, we developed a method inspired by SExtractor (Bertin & Arnouts 1996). The parameter MU\_MAX represents the surface brightness of the brightest pixel of a source, like elliptical aperture magnitude. In the MU\_MAX/MAG\_AUTO plane (shown in Fig. 1), the point-like sources follow a line of slope equal to one (referred to in this paper as the “starline”), and extended sources form a distinctive cloud above it. We added thresholds for MAG\_AUTO: a minimal value to avoid selecting saturated



**Fig. 1.** Point-like sources selection for PSF estimation. The plot shows the distribution (log scale) of sources from the GOODS-S field (F200W) in the MU\_MAX/MAG\_AUTO plane. The red box shows the starline detection of point-like sources with the starline indicated by red dots.   
*This is done by looking at stars (in the Milky Way, our galaxy) and what they look like. With the JWST, they look something like that!*

Detection is done by applying linear regression. However, to avoid bias from the extended sources cloud, we first applied a clustering algorithm to detect this point cloud and remove it. We used DBSCAN (Ester et al. 1996), implemented in the SCIKIT-LEARN Python package. This algorithm identifies cores of high density (the extended sources cloud) while excluding points considered as noise (the starline). We then applied a threshold on the MU\_MAX – MAG\_AUTO value to further remove outliers from the extended sources cloud. Finally, we detected the starline using the RANSAC linear regression algorithm (Fischler & Bolles 1981), implemented in SCIKIT-LEARN. The threshold and width around the starline used to select point-like sources were chosen empirically on the basis of additional tests. Fig. 1 shows the selection of point-like sources in the MU\_MAX/MAG\_AUTO plane.

The point-like source selection was expected to physically yield the same sample, independent of the band used. However, slight differences arose due to noise or differences in the threshold used for the MU\_MAX – MAG\_AUTO value. We chose the F200W band to select point-like sources, as it provided the most consistent starline detection across fields. Finally, we visually inspected a randomly selected sample ( $N \sim 100$ ) to verify that the selected sources were point-like. Figure A.1 shows examples of the PSFs in the GOODS-S field.

## OUR MEASUREMENTS 3. Morphological measurements

### 3.1. SOURCEXTRACTOR++

We didn’t start from scratch. We used a tool called SourceExtractor++, the successor to SExtractor, yes that’s its real name) that can measure the shape of galaxies with a given model (like the Sérsic index).

in different bands, without the need for prior sample selection, cutout creation, and masking. Additionally, its flexible model fitting allows the user to define any model using a single Python configuration file. In the following, we describe our models and catalog-making.

## In our work, we used two models of shape for galaxies.

### 3.2. Brightness profile models

To measure galaxy morphology, we modeled the brightness profile. The first one is the Sérsic model. It looks at galaxies as blobs of light and measure their shape by how sharp their edge is.

1. The Sérsic model (Sérsic 1963) parametrized by a single shape parameter, the Sérsic index  $n_S$ , the effective radius  $R_e$ , the axis ratio  $(a/b)$ , and the total flux  $f_{tot}$ . In this work, we fit for the two components of the ellipticity,  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ , which are directly linked to  $(a/b)$  and  $\theta$ . The priors used for these parameters are presented in Table 1.

2. The second model is the B+D model, a composite of two components: a disk ( $B+D_D$ ) and a de Vaucouleurs bulge ( $B+D_B$ ). The Sérsic profile. It is parametrized by the effective radii of the disk,  $R_{disk}$ , and bulge,  $R_{bulge}$ ; the axis ratios  $(a/b)_D$  and  $(a/b)_B$ ; a common angle  $\theta_{BD}$ ; the total flux of both components  $f_{BD,tot}$ , and the bulge-to-total ratio  $B/T = f_{BD,tot}/f_{BD}$ . The  $B/T$  prior is a bell curve ranging from  $5 \times 10^{-5}$  to 1, with a mean and spread that increase as a function of wavelength.

The B+D model generally provides a better fit than the Sérsic model, as it more accurately describes the central region of galaxies, particularly the presence of a bulge or a dimmer center compared to a Sérsic profile. However, because it has more parameters, it is more computationally intensive and can, in some cases, lead to degeneracy in the model parameters, especially for faint galaxies. This may not be distinguishable.

**The second model is called BulgetDisk. It's the superposition of multiple images, two Sérsic model:**

- One of index 4 for the core (the bulge) of the galaxy
- One of index 1 for the outskirt (the disk) of the galaxy

### 3.3. Tiling

It is theoretically possible to run SOURCEXTRACTOR++ directly on the full image. However, due to memory and computing power limitations, we chose to tile the full images. This approach yields final values that represent a weighted average over the entire wavelength range used (0.8–1.6 μm). The SE++ configuration file defines the tiling strategy.

#### 3.3.1. Catalog merging

To merge the sub-catalogs, we iterated over each tile to append them and create a catalog covering the whole field. At each iteration step, we cross-matched with the previously appended sub-catalogs and discarded the matched duplicates from the overlap regions. For sources that are matched (in the overlap region), we chose the one with the smallest uncertainty in the F200W magnitude, as measured by SOURCEXTRACTOR++. As

the model fitting was performed independently for the Sérsic and B+D models, this step was performed separately to produce one catalog per model. The F200W band was chosen because it has better resolution compared to the LW channel, and galaxies are generally brighter in it than in other bands of the SW channel.

Finally, we cross-matched the two model-fitting catalogs with the DJA catalogs. This step allowed us to remove false detections (which were frequent near the edges of images), retain the same list of sources, and provide additional morphological measurements to the DJA catalogs. We chose a threshold of  $0.3''$  as the cutting distance to validate a match. This threshold was set manually using the histogram of angular distances produced by the cross-match. This value corresponded to 5 pixels in the LW channel and 10 pixels in the SW channel of NIRCam, which was acceptable and could be the result of differences between the source centroids estimated in SExtractor and SOURCEXTRACTOR++.

### 3.3.2. Merging of the model and residual images

The SE++ tool produces model and residual images. We merged only the model sub-images and generated a mosaic residual image afterward. To merge the sub-images, we used the reproject\_and\_coadd function from the reproject Python package (Robitaille 2018), which reprojected and co-added the images on a frame specified by the World Coordinate System (WCS) of the native DJA images. This ensured that the merged full model images had the same pixel scale, center, and orientation as the DJA images. We used this to generate mosaic residual images by subtracting the mosaic model images from the source DJA images.

### 3.4. Flagging and completeness

As mentioned previously, our aim was to add morphological measurements to the DJA catalogs. Therefore, by cross-matching, we retained the same number of rows (sources) in our catalogs as in the DJA catalogs. Furthermore, we added a flag keyword with four possible values as follows:

- 0 : the source was not fitted (no morphological data).
- 1 : a potential artifact occurred during model fitting.
- 2 : fitting was performed successfully. This value gives science-ready data.
- 3 : the source has  $S/N < 3$  or a magnitude fainter than the  $5\sigma$  depth of its corresponding survey. The  $S/N$  was computed by SOURCEXTRACTOR++ on the detection image.

The distribution of the flag values is shown in Fig. 2. Seventy to eighty percent of the sources were successfully fitted (flag=2). This indicates that the SOURCEXTRACTOR++ minimization algorithm converged and the parameter values were not at the maximum of the allowed range. Sources without morphological detections and likely artifacts or faint sources near the image depth, which would be difficult to nonetheless. Potential artifacts are flagged with flag=1. Some sources start with some parameters remaining at their initial values or that strayed to the extremes of the allowed ranges. These values are flagged with flag=3.

**To run SourceXtractor++ on all our images, we have to slice them in small patches. This is simply to not hurt too much the computers that will have to do measurements.** Typically, this indicates a poor fit; therefore, we flagged such sources. For the Sérsic model, this includes sources with  $(a/b) > 0.99$ ,  $|n_S - 0.36| < 10^{-4}$ ,  $n_S > 8.35$ , or  $n_S < 0.301$ . For the B+D model, this includes  $(a/b)_D > 0.9999$ ,  $(a/b)_D < 0.10001$ , or  $|(a/b)_D - 0.5| < 10^{-5}$ . These values were chosen manually by identifying artifacts in the parameter distribution and by visual

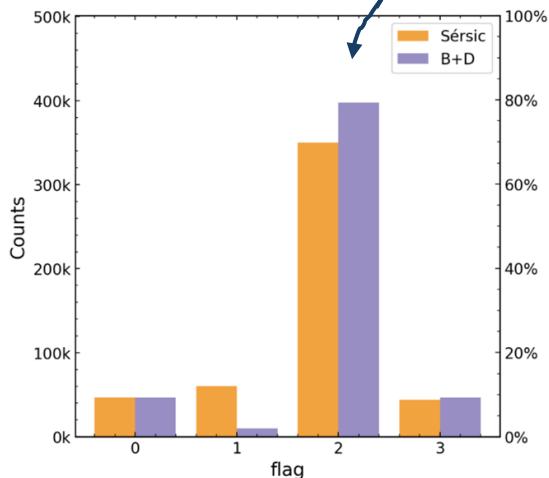
<sup>1</sup> <https://github.com/AstroAure/DJA-SEpp/blob/main/config/sepp-config.py>

**Table 2.** Completeness of the morphology measurements using SOURCEEXTRACTOR++.

Field	DJA	Sérsic	Bulge+Disk	Both
<b>CEERS</b>	67 035	52 604 (78.5%)	59 046 (88.1%)	<b>51 329 (76.6%)</b>
<b>GOODS-S</b>	57 355	44 931 (78.3%)	52 754 (92.0%)	<b>44 016 (76.7%)</b>
<b>GOODS-N</b>	65 481	53 291 (81.4%)	58 852 (89.9%)	<b>51 465 (78.6%)</b>
<b>PRIMER-UDS (N)</b>	68 857	58 947 (85.6%)	67 134 (97.5%)	<b>57 945 (84.2%)</b>
<b>PRIMER-UDS (S)</b>	65 864	57 397 (87.1%)	64 537 (98.0%)	<b>56 476 (85.7%)</b>
<b>PRIMER-COSMOS (E)</b>	50 655	42 359 (83.6%)	48 496 (95.7%)	<b>41 597 (82.1%)</b>
<b>PRIMER-COSMOS (W)</b>	51 362	40 493 (78.8%)	46 964 (91.4%)	<del>39 704 (77.3%)</del>
<b>Total</b>	426 609	350 022 (82.0%)	397 783 (93.2%)	<b>342 892 (80.4%)</b>

**Notes.** Values in the table show only sources with F277W magnitudes below the  $5\sigma$  depth of each field, and a  $\text{S/N} > 3$ . For the SOURCEEXTRACTOR++ columns, the values correspond to sources successfully fitted ( $\text{flag}=2$ ); see Sect. 4.1. Percentages are relative to the DJA catalogs with the same magnitude and S/N cut.

All the galaxies that have  
been correctly measured:  
340 000 galaxies!



**For some mysterious reasons, the program sometimes fails to measure the shape of a galaxy. We identify these failures, and mark the one that have correctly been measured.**

**This way, we know that we have been able to measure the shape of 80% of the galaxies in the images!**

The completeness is increased relative to the number of galaxies in the DJA catalogs, using the same quality cut on S/N and magnitude as  $\text{S/N} > 3$  and  $\text{mag} < 5\sigma$  depth ( $\text{flag}=3$ ) on both. In total, our catalog consists of 342 892 sources with reliable model fitting and science-ready, making it one of the largest morphological catalogs based on JWST observations.

A total of 80.4% of the DJA  $\text{S/N} > 3$  and  $\text{mag} < 5\sigma$  depth sources were successfully fitted with both a Sérsic and a B+D model. The completeness is higher for the B+D model than for the Sérsic model. This is likely because the B+D model is a

better description for some sources whose Sérsic model parameters tend toward the minimum or maximum allowed values (therefore classified as  $\text{flag}=1$ ). Finally, we analyzed the distribution of certain physical parameters (F277W magnitude,  $z_{\text{phot}}$ , mass, and Kron radius) for the non-detected sources ( $\text{flag}=0$ ) and potential artifacts ( $\text{flag}=1$ ). We did not find any significant correlation between these parameters, indicating that the incompleteness due to  $\text{flag}=1$  is not biased with magnitude, redshift or stellar mass.

Therefore, we consider our morphological catalogs to have a relatively high completeness compared to the DJA, and, as such, they provide highly valuable information for studying the morphology of galaxies and its evolution through cosmic time, as demonstrated in Sect. 4.

### 3.5. Comparisons with previous work

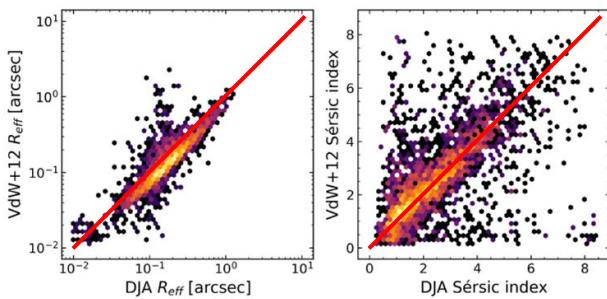
To validate our measurements, we compared them with previous morphological catalogs in the same fields, particularly van der Wel et al. (2012). These catalogs contain Sérsic modeling performed using Hubble Space Telescope (HST) observations in the same fields used in this work: GOODS, EGS, UDS, COSMOS. By cross-matching them with our catalog and selecting only early-type galaxies (see Eq. (2)), we find 3263 matches with  $\text{S/N} > 10$ .

The size and morphology of galaxies are known to differ in different wavelength ranges. To ensure that we compared morphologies measured at similar observer-frame wavelengths, we used the measurements in F160W from van der Wel et al. (2012). However, since our measurements correspond to the averaged morphology over NIRCam's wavelength range ( $\sim 1-5 \mu\text{m}$ ), we scaled the effective radii  $R_{\text{eff}}$  in van der Wel et al. (2012) to  $2.5 \mu\text{m}$  using the following scaling relation:

$$\frac{\Delta \log R_{\text{eff}}}{\Delta \log r} = \text{constant} \quad (1)$$

To make sure that our measurements are reliable, we compare some of them with previous studies that used different tools. We note that a more complex version of this relation has been proposed by the same authors, which integrates the effect of redshift and stellar mass. However, we adopted this simpler and more general relation for comparison purposes.

Figure 3 shows the one-to-one comparisons between the two works for  $R_{\text{eff}}$  (top middle panel) and the Sérsic index  $n_S$  (top



**Fig. 3.** Comparison between Sérsic model fitting in our work and van der Wel + 12. The figure compares effective radii  $R_{\text{eff}}$  and Sérsic index  $n$ . We corrected the  $R_{\text{eff}}$  value in our catalog to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  using Eq. (1), in order to match the average wavelength of our  $J$ -band observations. The color bar indicates the Sérsic index in log scale. Gray dotted lines show identical values between the two datasets. The left panel shows the ratio of the VdW+12 effective radius to the DJA effective radius. The right panel shows the VdW+12 Sérsic index versus the DJA Sérsic index.

Ideally, all the points would be on the red diagonal line. But because we used different images and tools, it's normal that there's some dispersion. However, they pretty much follow the correct trend. So our measurements are good!

## 4. WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM ALL THIS?

To demonstrate the scientific application of our morphological catalogs, we investigated statistical distributions of several morphology indicators as a function of redshift and galaxy type. Our measurements cover a wide range of redshifts, enabling studies of morphology evolution as a function of galaxy type. In particular, we used the photo-z redshift catalog and other physical parameters from the ESO B+C catalogs. In particular, we investigated the main motivation for this work was to look at the difference in shapes between galaxies that form new stars and «dead» galaxies (so called quiescent galaxies).

### 4.1 To separate star-forming from dead galaxies, we can look at their color.

Young stars are generally blue because they are hotter, whereas old stars are red because they are cooler. (Yes, this is the opposite from the colors on your faucet...) Because of this, we know that dead galaxies are redder than star-forming ones. We can therefore look at the shape of the galaxies and compare them to their color!

$$UVJ_{\text{quiescent}} = \begin{cases} V - J < 1.6, \text{ and} \\ U - V > 0.88(V - J) + 0.49. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

In addition, we focused our analysis on  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 10$ , flag=2, and S/N > 10, resulting in 13 685 galaxies. This ensured that our sample had sufficiently high S/N and robust morphological estimates from the model fitting.

First, we investigate the location of galaxies in the  $UVJ$  diagram as a function of the Sérsic index,  $n_S$ , and redshift. Fig. 4 shows the  $UVJ$  diagram in six redshift bins at  $0 < z < 6$  (in different panels), color coded by the Sérsic index. The dotted lines mark the regions separating star-forming and quiescent galaxies (Eq. (2)). Fig. 4 shows a clear correlation between the Sérsic index and  $UVJ$  colors. There is a gradient of the Sérsic index,  $n_S$ , in a direction roughly orthogonal to the boundary between quiescent and star-forming galaxies, such that galaxies with a higher Sérsic index preferentially populate the redder and quiescent  $UVJ$  region. This trend holds for the different redshift bins. For  $z > 4$ , the samples are too small to draw statistically robust conclusions, especially for quiescent galaxies.

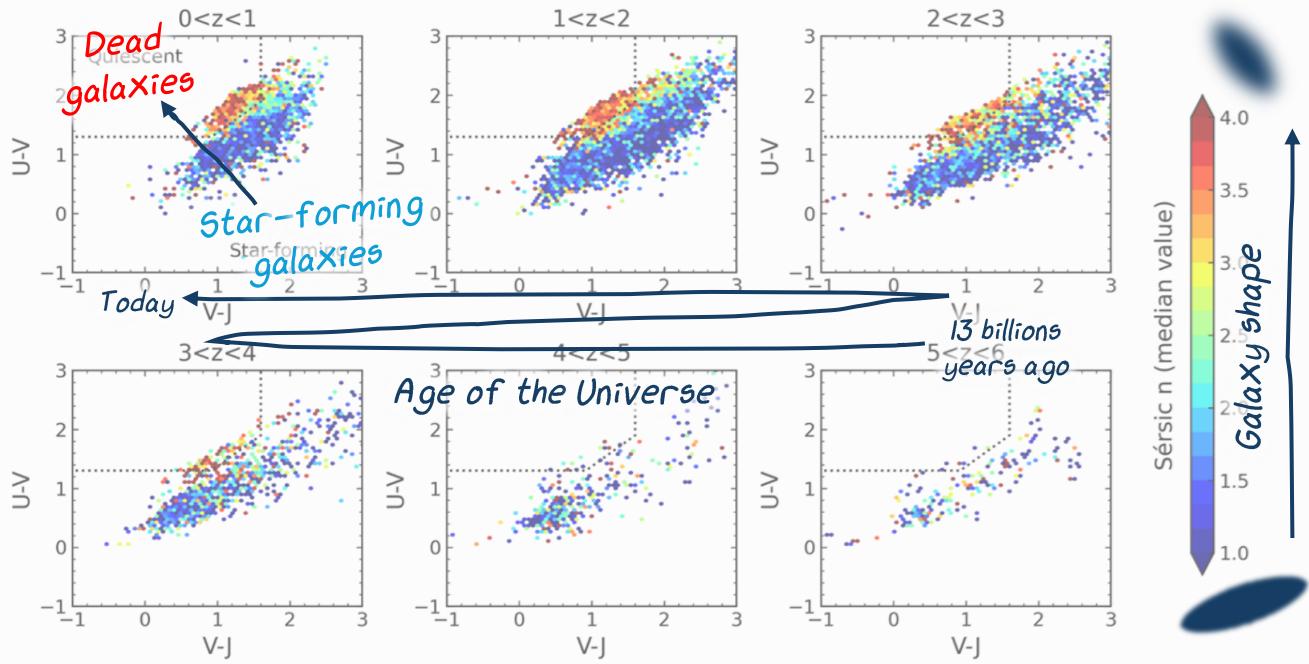
Second, because we also used B+D models to fit the galaxies in our catalogs, we could analyze how their  $B/T$  values populate the  $UVJ$  diagram. For this analysis, we used the  $B/T$  measured in the F200W band because it offers better resolution, being in the SW channel. Figure 5 shows  $UVJ$  diagrams for three broad redshift ranges and three  $B/T$  ranges. The color indicates the  $B/T$  value, with the color scale indicated at the top. We also show the contours estimated by kernel density. Fig. 5 shows that bulge-dominated galaxies ( $B/T > 0.6$ ) preferentially occupy the quiescent region, whereas disk-dominated galaxies ( $B/T < 0.2$ ) occupy the star-forming region. Intermediate galaxies that show both bulges and disks ( $0.2 < B/T < 0.6$ ) form a diverse population that can be classified as both star-forming and quiescent based on their  $UVJ$  colors. However, there is a trend showing that galaxies with a higher  $B/T$  preferentially occupy the quiescent  $UVJ$  region. At  $z > 3$  there are more galaxies with higher  $B/T$  that are star-forming than quiescent. This results from the relative rarity of quiescent galaxies at these epochs, as well as from the presence of a population of compact star-forming galaxies (e.g., blue nuggets, Barro et al. 2013; Dekel & Burkert 2014, which we discuss further in the next part of this section). These qualitative trends from the independently fitted B+D model are in good agreement with those from the morphological measurement.

To further investigate the correlation between bulge- and disk-dominated morphology and star formation activity, we defined two classes based on the two independent morphology estimates,  $n_S$  and  $B/T$ , as follows:

1. Bulge-dominated galaxies:  $n_S > 1.0$  and  $B/T > 0.5$ .  
2. Disk-dominated galaxies:  $n_S < 1.0$  and  $B/T < 0.5$ .  
This is a simple way to separate the classification of whether a galaxy is disk- or bulge-dominated and explore how this separation changes with redshift.

In Fig. 6, we show the  $UVJ$  diagrams in the same redshift ranges as in Fig. 4, with color indicating the two different classes: red for bulge-dominated galaxies and blue for disk-dominated galaxies. We plotted kernel density contour lines for each class. This classification is consistent with the broad conclusion that quiescent galaxies are bulge-dominated and star-forming galaxies are disk-dominated.

The bulge-dominated sample still exhibits evidence of bimodality, with a small population of quiescent galaxies. While star formation is typically associated with disk galaxies, quiescent disks do exist. At lower masses, quenching is often environmentally driven, particularly via strangulation (Larson et al. 1980; Moran et al. 2007), ram pressure stripping (Gunn & Gott 1972), and galaxy harassment (Moore et al. 1996, 1998) in dense environments (Peng et al. 2010; Cortese et al. 2021). At higher masses, some fast-rotating quiescent disks can



**Fig. 4.** Distribution of Sérsic indices,  $n_S$ , in the  $UVJ$  color space for different redshift ranges, for galaxies with  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 10$ . The color of each hexagonal bin represents the median value of  $n_S$ , as indicated by the colorbar. The dotted line shows the quiescent vs. star-forming separation using Eq. (2). The quiescent region is predominantly populated by galaxies with high Sérsic indices ( $n_S \gtrsim 3$ ).

form through a combination of mild dissipative contraction and secular evolution (Toft et al. 2017; D'Eugenio et al. 2024). These quiescent disks may also result from gas exhaustion following a compaction event or mergers that preserve disk kinematics

**The figure above shows how the shape of galaxies is linked to their color (and 2015).**

Bulge-dominated galaxies move from the quiescent  $UVJ$  region out to  $z \sim 3$ , with a small bimodality appearing in the star-forming region at higher redshifts. This indicates that bulge growth coincides with quiescence, consistent with theoretical and observational evidence for compactness-driven quenching (e.g., Barro et al. 2013, 2015, 2016). The location of bulge-dominated galaxies in the  $UVJ$  diagram – toward bluer colors compared to the main disk-dominated population – supports a fast quenching scenario, in which lower-mass, young star-forming galaxies undergo rapid quenching (e.g., Toft et al. 2012; Belli et al. 2019). This is consistent with the bulge nugget phase, where galaxies experience a burst of compact stars before undergoing quenching into red nuggets (e.g., Dekel & Burkert 2014; Zolotov et al. 2015; Barro et al. 2017). Finally, the lower number of bulge-dominated galaxies in the higher redshift ranges is consistent with the inverted Hubble classification evolution: galaxies form as disks and evolve to bulges (e.g., Quillen & de Lapparent 2022).

This qualitative analysis of the correlation between quenching and morphology is consistent with the current picture from both theory and observations. Importantly, by providing morphological measurements from JWST for such a large sample,

our work paves the way for more in-depth and quantitative population studies that can unveil the details of galaxy quenching and the accompanying morphological transformations.

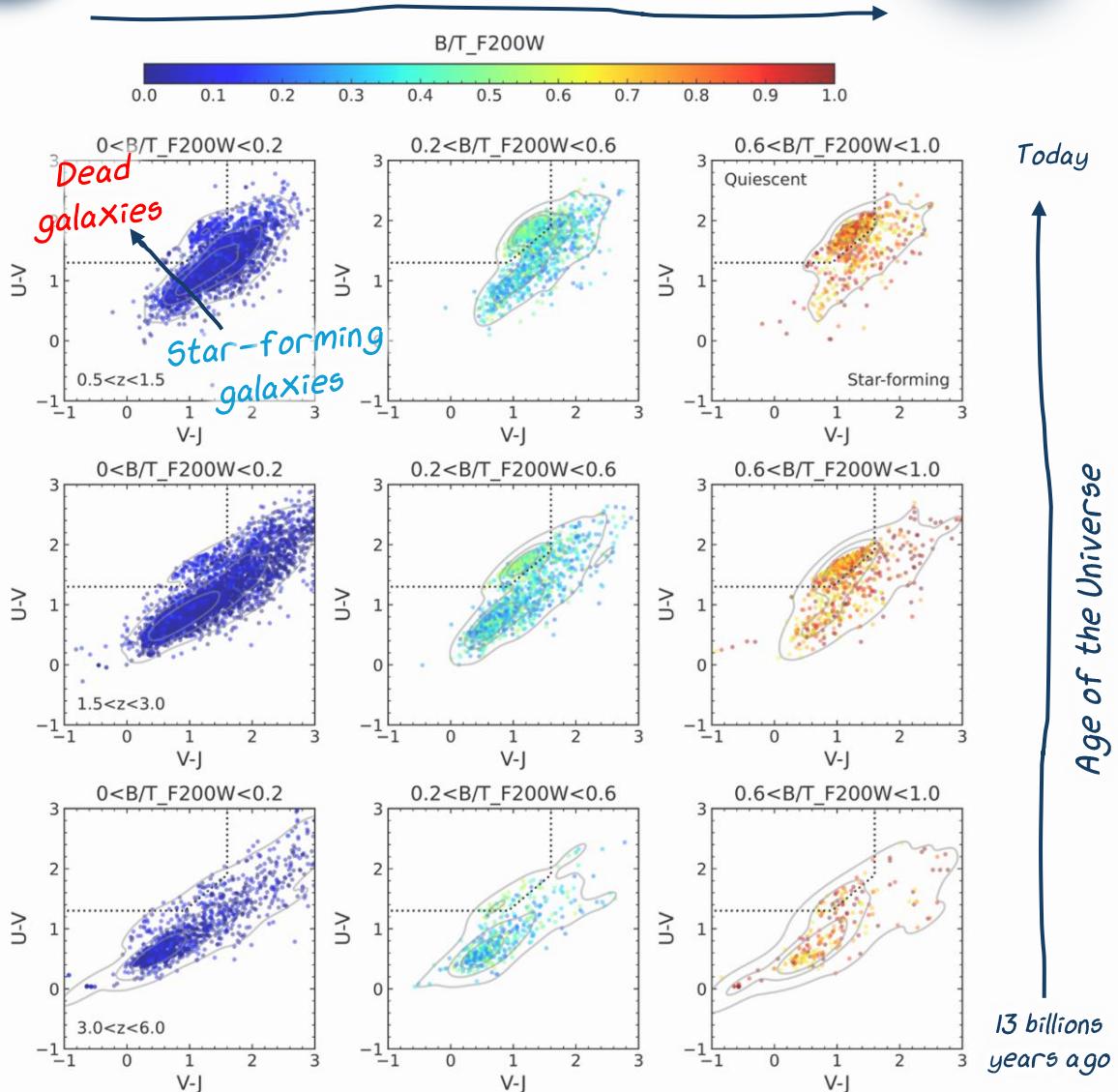
**so whether they produce new stars or not)**

We see that dead galaxies always have a high Sérsic index, whereas star-forming galaxies have a low Sérsic index. This confirms that star-forming galaxies are generally disk galaxies and dead galaxies are elliptical.

Moreover, we see that this conclusion holds even at different epochs (although there are fewer dead galaxies in the early Universe because they haven't had the time to go extinct). Our measurements show that the overall size ( $r_e$ , from the Sérsic model) of all galaxies with  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 10$  increases with redshift from about 1 kpc at  $z \sim 5$  to  $\sim 2.5$  kpc at  $z \sim 0.5$ . Disk-dominated galaxies show larger sizes by about 0.1–0.2 kpc compared to the whole sample, and increase with time, while

## Importance of the core of the galaxy

Gemin, A., et al.: A&A, 699, A343 (2023)



**Using the Bulge+Disk model shows a similar story:** Fig. 5. Distribution of  $B/T$  in the  $UVJ$  color space for different redshift and  $B/T$  ranges, for galaxies with  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 10$ . Each point is colored by its  $B/T$  value in the F200W filter. The contours indicate 25, 50, and 75% of the density. Bulge-dominated galaxies (high  $B/T$ ) predominantly occupy the quiescent region, whereas disk-dominated galaxies (low  $B/T$ ) are generally in the star-forming region of the  $UVJ$  space.

**Dead galaxies have generally a bright core and a dim disk.**

**Star-forming galaxies have generally a dim core and a bright disk.**

To quantify the size-redshift evolution we fitted a  $r_e = R(1+z)^a$  model, comparing our measurements of the Sérsic effective radius. The fit was performed using the least squares method through the lmfit Python package, which resulted in  $r_e = (3.66 \pm 0.04)(1+z)^{-0.59 \pm 0.01}$  kpc. For the bulge-dominated population, we obtain  $r_e = (4.02 \pm 0.04)(1+z)^{-0.51 \pm 0.01}$  kpc. For the disk-dominated population, the fit is  $r_e = (3.34 \pm 0.04)(1+z)^{-0.49 \pm 0.01}$  kpc. We compared our results with the literature based on JWST (B+D) model fit. This shows that the disk size increases

**Galaxies that have a bright core are generally dead.**

**Galaxies that have a bright disk are generally forming stars.**

**And we don't know yet whether one of this causes the other (is it the death of the galaxy that makes it become denser? Or is it its compactification that makes it die?) or if there's an external effect that causes both.**

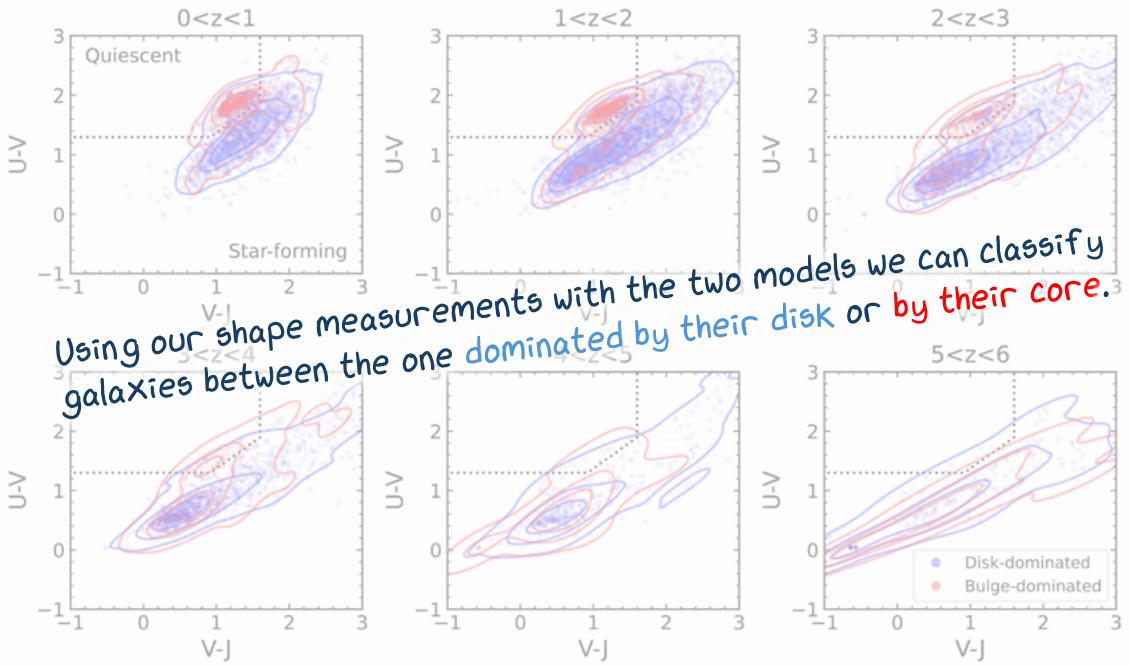


Fig. 6. UVJ color diagram for bulge- and disk-dominated galaxies. Galaxies grow with time, but dead galaxies have had a sudden jump in size whereas star-forming galaxies grew steadily.

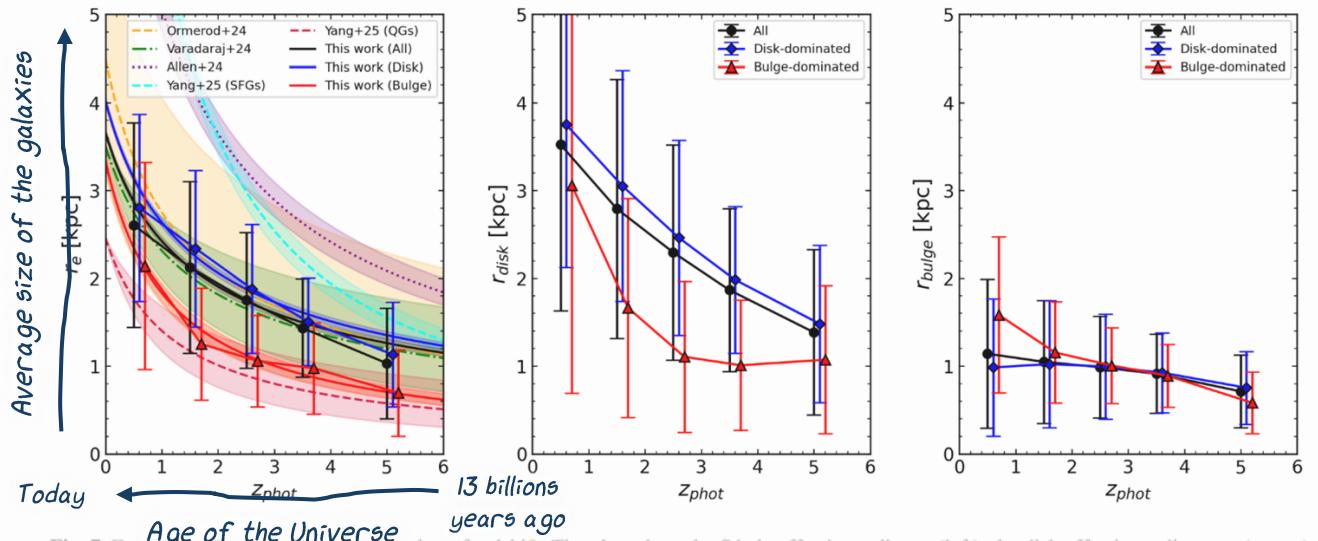
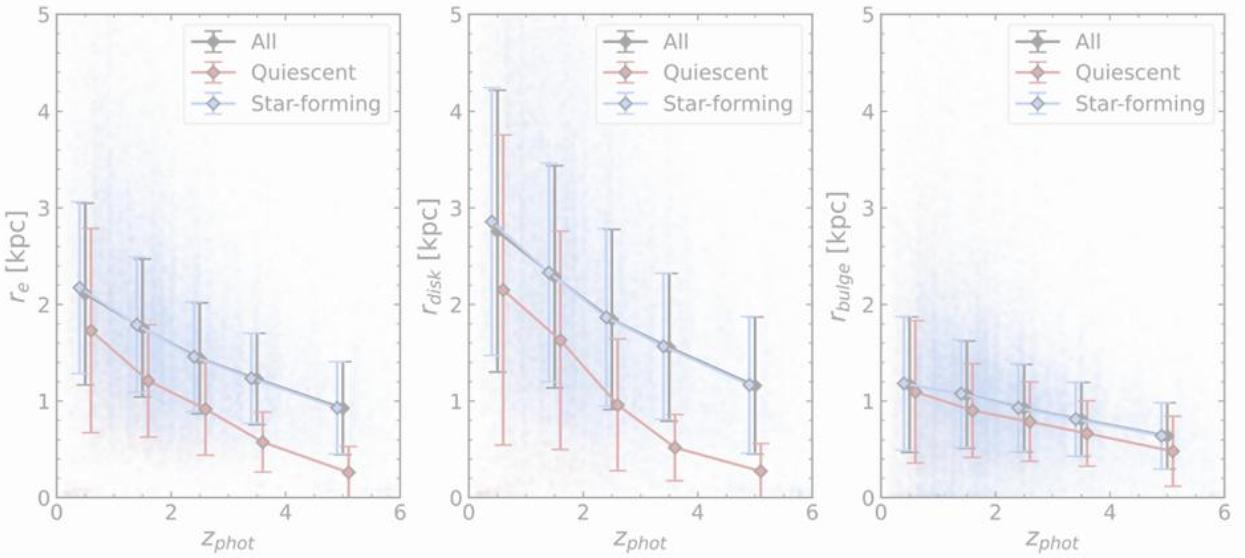
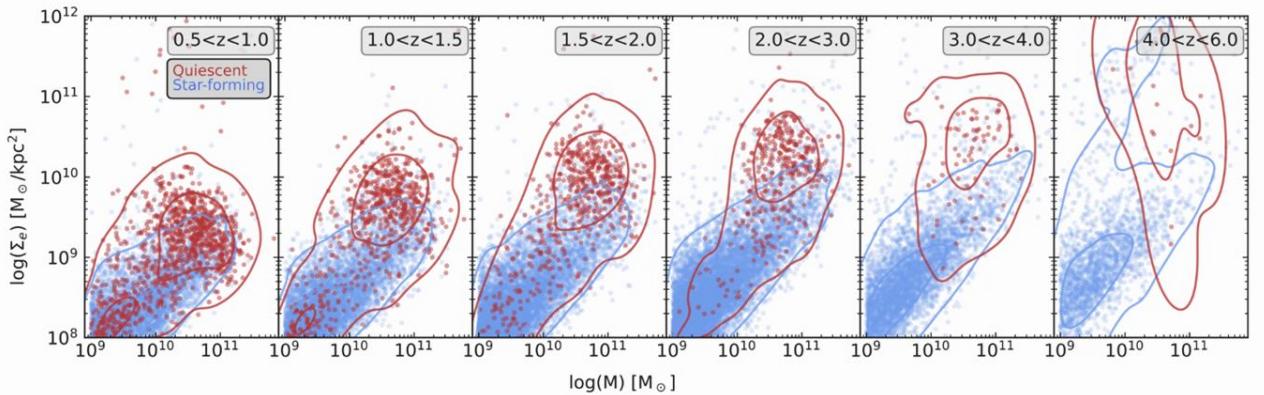


Fig. 7. Evolution of galaxy sizes as a function of redshift. The plots show the Sérsic effective radius  $r_e$  (left), the disk effective radius  $r_{disk}$  (center), and the bulge effective radius  $r_{bulge}$  (right) as a function of  $z_{phot}$  for  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 10$  galaxies. This corresponds to a mean mass of  $\approx 4 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ . The points with error bars have mean and 1  $\sigma$  given redshift for all galaxies (black), disk-dominated galaxies (blue), and bulge-dominated galaxies (red). A selection is made in the left panel for galaxies, as well as for the bulge- and disk-dominated populations following (1, 2, 3) see Sec. 4. We measure the size evolution for all galaxies with previous PUST-based work (Varadaraj+24, Genin et al. (2024), Chen et al. (2023) and Yang et al. (2025)).

disk-dominated population exhibiting larger disks by approximately 0.2 kpc, as expected. The bulge-dominated population may start to grow later than the disk-dominated population, reaching ( $>1$  kpc) out  $z \sim 2.5$  and increase to  $\sim 3.0$  kpc by  $z \sim 0.6$ . This suggests that the components of bulge-dominated galaxies begin to grow later than the disk-dominated population. On the other hand, show little/no growth with redshift with the total population exhibiting bulge sizes of about 1 kpc. However, the bulge component of the bulge-dominated population displays a dispersion of  $\sim 1.6$  kpc. The associated  $\sigma$  dispersion is of comparable magnitude, making it difficult to draw robust conclusions. We are investigating the size evolution of quiescent and star-forming galaxies selected using their UVJ colors in Fig. 8. We found that dead galaxies grew later, but faster, than star-forming galaxies!



**Fig. 8.** Evolution of the sizes of quiescent and star forming galaxies with  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 10$ . The plots show the Sérsic effective radius  $r_e$ , the disk effective radius  $r_{disk}$ , and the bulge effective radius  $r_{bulge}$  as a function of  $z_{phot}$ . Galaxies are classified as quiescent or star-forming based on their  $UVJ$  colors. The points and error bars indicate the mean and  $1\sigma$  dispersion in the corresponding  $z_{phot}$  bin.



**Fig. 9.** Evolution of the stellar mass surface density,  $\Sigma_e$ . Shown are masses and redshifts from the DJA, calculated using EAZY, and effective radii,  $r_e$ , measured by SOURCETRACTOR++ in this work. Galaxies are classified as quiescent or star-forming according to their position in the  $UVJ$  diagram. The **By combining shape, size and mass, we computed the "density" of the galaxies.**

Overall, as expected, quiescent galaxies have smaller sizes than star-forming galaxies. The size of quiescent galaxies increases with redshift, from  $\sim 0.2$  kpc for the earliest quiescent galaxies at  $z \sim 5$  to  $\sim 2$  kpc by  $z \sim 0.5$ . This shows that the size growth of quiescent galaxies is steeper than that of star-forming galaxies. This size evolution is consistent with previous studies showing that both populations experience growth over time, driven by minor mergers and continuous star formation in star-forming galaxies, whereas quiescent galaxies primarily grow via dry mergers (e.g., van der Wel et al. 2014; Whitaker et al. 2017). While high-redshift quiescent galaxies are compact at formation, often referred to as “red nuggets” (e.g., Damjanov et al. 2009), Fig. 8 indicates that they continue to grow in size down to  $z \sim 0.5$ , a trend that can be driven by minor mergers and other accretion processes (e.g., Newman et al. 2012;

Belli et al. 2015). However, part of the observed size growth of quiescent galaxies may be driven by progenitor bias – as new, larger galaxies continue to quench and enter the quiescent population, making the size evolution appear more dramatic than if individual galaxies were tracked over time (e.g., Barro et al. 2013; Carollo et al. 2013).

The disk sizes of star-forming galaxies increase from  $\sim 1.4$  kpc at  $z \sim 5$  to  $3.4$  kpc by  $z \sim 0.5$ , consistent with expectations from inside-out growth models, where gas accretion and star formation preferentially occur in the outskirts (e.g., Patel et al. 2012; Morishita et al. 2014; Matharu et al. 2024). The disk sizes of quiescent galaxies remain small and are similar to, or smaller than, their bulges, at least out to  $z \sim 2$ , where the disk size increases to about 2.6 kpc. However, the scatter is significantly higher, making it difficult to draw meaningful conclusions

about the disk sizes of quiescent galaxies. The bulge sizes for both star-forming and quiescent galaxies exhibit a mild evolution with redshift. Star-forming galaxies grow by about 0.6 kpc, reaching  $\sim 1.2$  kpc by  $z \sim 0.5$ . Quiescent galaxies are slightly more compact and, at high redshift, have bulges of about 0.4 kpc, increasing to about 1.2 kpc by  $z \sim 0.6$ . The persistence of small bulge sizes in both populations suggests that bulges reach their final configuration early, while the surrounding disks continue to evolve, particularly in star-forming galaxies. This is consistent with models in which early compaction events, such as mergers or disk instabilities, form a central bulge, after which the fate of the galaxy depends on the availability of fresh gas for continued star formation or quenching mechanisms (e.g., Barro et al. 2017; Tacchella et al. 2018).

#### 4.3. Evolution of the stellar mass surface density for quiescent and star-forming galaxies

To investigate the relationship between the compactness of a galaxy and its star formation activity, we calculated the stellar mass surface density,  $\Sigma_e$ , which is the mass contained within the Sérsic effective radius, given by  $\Sigma_e = M_*/2\pi r_e^2$ . Fig. 9 shows  $\Sigma_e$  as a function of stellar mass for quiescent and star-forming galaxies of  $\log M_*/M_\odot > 9$ , to facilitate comparison with the existing literature, in six redshift bins at  $0.5 < z < 6$ . This figure demonstrates that quiescent galaxies are more compact, with higher surface mass densities than those of star-forming galaxies, and that quiescent galaxies become increasingly dense at earlier times. This finding is in good agreement with previous work, e.g., Barro et al. (2017), which shows this relation out to  $z \sim 3$ . Our results indicate that this relation extends out to  $z \sim 5$  and that quiescent galaxies increase in compactness the earlier they form. This is consistent with the observed compactness of some of the earliest quiescent galaxies found by JWST (Carnall et al. 2023; de Graaff et al. 2025; Weibel et al. 2024; Ito et al. 2024; Wright et al. 2024).

## THE END

This work presents a catalog of galaxy morphologies measured from JWST imaging of the major extragalactic surveys CEERS, GDS, and PTF, and the EAZY and SOURCEXTRACTOR++ model and a Bulge+disk+bulge model.

We only glanced at what this catalog of the shape of 340 000 galaxies can tell us about the evolution of galaxies and of the Universe.

To validate our measurements, we compared our results with those from the literature obtained using independent methods and software, and we find good consistency. To demonstrate the scientific potential of our catalog, we conducted measurements in combination with the photo-z and physical parameters from the EAZY catalogs. We investigated the relation between galaxy compactness, star formation rate, star formation activity, and redshift. We summarize our results as follows:

We confirmed a very good link between how compact a galaxy is and whether it produces stars or not. We also measured the size evolution of these galaxies through cosmic times, and especially how their shape in these distributions, with some populations of quiescent galaxies that are disk-dominated as well as star-forming galaxies that are bulge-dominated;

- The two-component fits reveal that low  $B/T$  galaxies preferentially occupy the star-forming  $UVJ$  region, while high  $B/T$  galaxies populate the quiescent region. At  $z > 3$ , however, we observe a population of high  $B/T$  and bulge-dominated galaxies, consistent with a blue nugget phase;
- The Sérsic effective radius ( $r_e$ ), disk effective radius ( $r_{\text{disk}}$ ), and bulge effective radius ( $r_{\text{bulge}}$ ) all show a decreasing trend with increasing redshift. Star-forming galaxies exhibit systematically larger sizes compared to quiescent galaxies at all redshifts, consistent with prior studies. Quiescent galaxies, while smaller than star-forming ones, show a steeper increase in their effective radius with time;
- Quiescent galaxies are significantly more compact than their star-forming counterparts, leading to high stellar mass surface densities ( $\Sigma_e$ ). We find that  $\Sigma_e$  for quiescent galaxies is nearly an order of magnitude higher at  $z \sim 4$  compared to  $z \sim 1$ , consistent with the observed compactness of some of the earliest quiescent galaxies observed by JWST.

This morphological catalog is a valuable addition to the DJA, enabling a range of in-depth studies of the morphological transformations associated with galaxy evolution.

## Data availability

Our catalog is available at the CDS via anonymous ftp to [cdsarc.cds.unistra.fr/viz-bin/cat/J/A+A/699/A34](http://cdsarc.cds.unistra.fr/viz-bin/cat/J/A+A/699/A34). It contains the raw data used to run the model fitting and the notebooks used to analyze the results are available on [GitHub](https://github.com/GeninA/DAWN_Catalog) under the [GNU GPL v3.0](#).

**Because that's the nice thing in the scientific world: results are generally shared to make the collective human knowledge progress!**

**Acknowledgements.** The data products presented herein were retrieved from the [DAWN Center](#) ([DAWN](#)), which is funded by the Danish National Research Foundation under grant DNRF140. This work was partially funded by the Swiss State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation (SERI) under contract number MB22.00072. This work has been conducted during the research internship of Aurélien Genin at the Cosmic DAWN Center, under the supervision of Marko Shuntov. This internship has also been made possible thanks to the financial support of the “Space: Science and Challenges of Space” chair at École polytechnique, financed by ArianeGroup and Thales Alenia Space, as well as an Erasmus+ internship grant.

## References

- Allen, N., Oesch, P. A., Toft, S., et al. 2025, [A&A](#), 698, A30
- Barro, G., Faber, S. M., Pérez-González, P. G., et al. 2013, [ApJ](#), 765, 104
- Barro, G., Faber, S. M., Pérez-González, P. G., et al. 2014, [ApJ](#), 791, 52
- Barro, G., Faber, S. M., Koo, D. C., et al. 2017, [ApJ](#), 840, 47
- Belli, S., Newman, A. B., & Ellis, R. S. 2015, [ApJ](#), 799, 206
- Belli, S., Newman, A. B., & Ellis, R. S. 2019, [ApJ](#), 874, 17
- Berman, E. M., McCleary, J. E., Koeckemoer, A. M., et al. 2024, [AJ](#), 168, 174
- Bertin, E., 2011, in Astronomical Data Analysis Software and Systems XX, eds. I. N. Evans, A. Accomazzi, D. J. Mink, & A. H. Rots, [Astronomical Society of the Pacific Conference Series](#), 442, 435
- Bertin, E., & Arnouts, S. 1996, [A&ASS](#), 117, 393
- Bertin, E., Schefer, M., Apostolakos, N., et al. 2020, in Astronomical Data Analysis Software and Systems XXIX, eds. R. Pizzo, E. R. Deul, J. D. Mol, J. de Plaa, & H. Verkouter, [Astronomical Society of the Pacific Conference Series](#), 527, 461
- Brammer, G., van Dokkum, P. V., & Coppi, P. 2008, [ApJ](#), 686, 1503
- Carnall, A. C., McLure, R. J., Dunlop, J. S., et al. 2023, [Nature](#), 619, 716
- Carollo, C. M., Bschott, T. J., Renzini, A., et al. 2013, [ApJ](#), 773, 112
- Conselice, C. J. 2003, [ApJS](#), 147, 1
- Conselice, C. J. 2014, [ARA&A](#), 52, 291
- Cortese, L., Catinella, B., & Smith, R. 2021, [PASA](#), 38, e035
- Daddi, E., Renzini, A., Pirzkal, N., et al. 2005, [ApJ](#), 626, 680

- Damjanov, I., McCarthy, P. J., Abraham, R. G., et al. 2009, *ApJ*, 695, 101  
de Graaff, A., Setton, D. J., Brammer, G., et al. 2025, *Nat. Astron.*, 9, 280  
de Vaucouleurs, G. 1959, *Handb. Phys.*, 53, 275  
Dekel, A., & Burkert, A. 2014, *MNRAS*, 438, 1870  
D'Eugenio, F., Pérez-González, P. G., Maiolino, R., et al. 2024, *Nat. Astron.*, 8, 1443  
Donnan, C. T., McLure, R. J., Dunlop, J. S., et al. 2024, *MNRAS*, 533, 3222  
Eisenstein, D. J., Willott, C., Alberts, S., et al. 2023, arXiv e-prints, [arXiv:2306.02465]  
Ester, M., Kriegel, H.-P., Sander, J., & Xu, X. 1996, in *Second International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD'96)*, Proceedings of a conference held August 2–4, 226  
Fall, S. M., & Efstathiou, G. 1980, *MNRAS*, 193, 189  
Finkelstein, S. L., Bagley, M. B., Ferguson, H. C., et al. 2023, *ApJ*, 946, L13  
Fischler, M., & Bolles, R. 1981, *Commun. ACM*, 24, 381  
Grogan, N. A., Kocevski, D. D., Faber, S. M., et al. 2011, *ApJS*, 197, 35  
Gunn, J. E., & Gott, III, J. R. 1972, *ApJ*, 176, 1  
Heintz, K. E., Brammer, G. B., Watson, D., et al. 2025, *A&A*, 691, 101  
Hubble, E. P. 1936, *Realm of the Nebulae* (New Haven: Yale University Press)  
Ito, K., Valentino, F., Brammer, G., et al. 2024, *ApJS*, 222, 12  
Kawinwanichakij, L., Silverman, J. D., Di Stefano, R., et al. 2024, *ApJS*, 21, 58  
Koekemoer, A. M., Aussel, H., Ferguson, Henry C., et al. 2011, *ApJS*, 197, 36  
Koekemoer, A. M., Ferguson, Henry C., et al. 2020, in *Astronomical Data Analysis Software and Systems XXIX*, eds. R. Pizzo, E. R. Deul, J. D. Mol, J. de Plaa, & H. Verkouter, *Astronomical Society of the Pacific Conference Series*, 527, 29  
Larson, R. B., Tinsley, B. M., & Caldwell, C. N. 1980, *ApJ*, 237, 692  
Leauthaud, A., Massey, R., Kneib, J.-P., et al. 2007, *ApJS*, 172, 219  
Lintott, C. J., Schawinski, K., Slosar, A., et al. 2008, *MNRAS*, 389, 1179  
Lotz, J. M., Primack, J., & Madau, P. 2004, *AJ*, 128, 163  
Matharu, J., Nelson, E. J., Brammer, G., et al. 2024, *A&A*, 690, A64  
Mo, H. J., Mao, S., & White, S. D. M. 1998, *MNRAS*, 295, 319  
Moore, B., Katz, N., Lake, G., Dressler, A., & Oemler, A. 1996, *Nature*, 379, 613  
Moore, B., Lake, G., & Katz, N. 1998, *ApJ*, 495, 139  
Moran, S. M., Ellis, R. S., Treu, T., et al. 2007, *ApJ*, 671, 1503  
Morishita, T., Ichikawa, T., & Kajisawa, M. 2014, *ApJ*, 785, 18  
Moutard, T., Sawicki, M., Arnouts, S., et al. 2018, *MNRAS*, 479, 2147
- And since we've quoted the work of a lot of different persons, we have to cite them properly.
- Newman, A. B., Ellis, R. S., Bundy, K., & Treu, T. 2012, *ApJ*, 746, 162  
Oke, J. B. 1974, *ApJS*, 27, 21  
Omand, C. M. B., Balogh, M. L., & Poggianti, B. M. 2014, *MNRAS*, 440, 843  
Ormerod, K., Conselice, C. J., Adams, N. J., et al. 2024, *MNRAS*, 527, 6110  
Patel, S. G., Holden, B. P., Kelso, D. D., et al. 2012, *ApJ*, 748, L27  
Peng, Y., Lilly, S. J., Kovac, K., et al. 2010, *ApJ*, 721, 193  
Planck Collaboration VI. 2020, *A&A*, 641, A6  
Quillie, L., & de Lapparent, V. 2022, *A&A*, 666, A170  
Rieke, M., Kelly, D., & Horner, S. 2005, in *SPIE Optics + Photonics*, 5904  
Rix, H.-W., Barden, M., Beckwith, S. V. W., et al. 2000, *JS*, 152, 163  
Robitaille, T. 2018, <https://doi.org/10.31233/osf.io/1162674>  
Schawinski, K., Urry, C. M., Simard, L., et al. 2014, *MNRAS*, 440, 889  
Schreiber, C., Elbaz, D., Dahlen, M., et al. 2016, *A&A*, 589, A35  
Sérsic, J. L. 1963, *Bol. Soc. Argent. Astron. Plata Argentina*, 6, 41  
Shen, S., Trujillo, E., White, S. D. M., et al. 2003, *MNRAS*, 343, 978  
Sohn, J., Ouchi, T., Ueda, Y., & Uchida, Y. 2015, *ApJS*, 219, 15  
Somerville, R. C., Behroozi, P., Pandya, V., et al. 2018, *MNRAS*, 473, 2714  
Spoon, J., Valentino, F., Carollo, C. M., Renzini, A., et al. 2015, *Science*, 348, 314  
Stern, S., McCracken, H. J., McCandliss, S. R., et al. 2004, *MNRAS*, 348, 242  
Tacchella, S., Carollo, C. M., Förster Schreiber, N. M., et al. 2018, *ApJ*, 859, 56  
Toft, S., Zabl, J., Richard, J., et al. 2017, *Nature*, 546, 510  
Trujillo, I., Conselice, C. J., Bundy, K., et al. 2007, *MNRAS*, 382, 109  
Valentino, F., Brammer, G., Gould, K. M. L., et al. 2023, *ApJ*, 947, 20  
van der Wel, A., Bell, E. F., Häussler, B., et al. 2012, *ApJS*, 203, 24  
van der Wel, A., Franx, M., van Dokkum, P. G., et al. 2014, *ApJ*, 788, 28  
van Dokkum, P. G., Nelson, E. J., Franx, M., et al. 2015, *ApJ*, 813, 23  
Varadaraj, R. G., Bowler, R. A. A., Jarvis, M. J., et al. 2024, *MNRAS*, 533, 3724  
Weibel, A., Oesch, P. A., Barrufet, L., et al. 2024, *MNRAS*, 533, 1808  
Whitaker, K. E., Bezanson, R., van Dokkum, P. G., et al. 2017, *ApJ*, 838, 19  
Williams, R. J., Quadri, R. F., Franx, M., van Dokkum, P., & Labb , I. 2009, *ApJ*, 691, 1879  
Wright, L., Whitaker, K. E., Weaver, J. R., et al. 2024, *ApJ*, 964, L10  
Yang, L., Kartaltepe, J. S., Franco, M., et al. 2025, *COSMOS-Web: Unraveling the Evolution of Galaxy Size and Related Properties at  $2 < z < 10$*   
York, D. G., Adelman, J., Anderson, John E., J., et al. 2000, *AJ*, 120, 1579  
Zolotov, A., Dekel, A., Mandelker, N., et al. 2015, *MNRAS*, 450, 2327

Thank you for reading this, and congratulations for reaching the end ! I hope you learned new stuff about the life of galaxies, and that my attempt to make this paper understandable was clear enough

Aur  lien Genin  
<https://astroaure.github.io>